AN ATLAS OF INDIAN HISTORY

By

E. W. GREEN, B.A.(Oxon.)
INDIAN EDUCATIONAL SERVICE (RETIRED)

MACMILLAN AND CO., LIMITED
BOMBAY CALCUTTA MADRAS LONDON

MACMILLAN'S
INDIAN HISTORICAL MAPS

NOTE ON AIM AND CHARACTER OF THE MAPS

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The Maps illustrate the important political changes throughout the course of Indian History.

Map I. INDIA FROM 327 B.C.–140 A.D.
II. INDIA UNDER THE GUPTA AND HARSHA EMPIRES, 320–647 A.D.
III. THE GROWTH AND DECLINE OF MUHAMMADAN POWER, 1000–1526.
IV. THE MOGUL EMPIRE.
V. THE MAHRATTA POWER, 1795, AND ITS DECLINE, 1803–1820.
VI. THE DEVELOPMENT OF BRITISH POWER.

The Maps do not indicate merely the political divisions of India or the various stages of her historical progress. The chief physical features are also shown so as to enable the teacher to point out their influence in determining the chief movements and events of Indian History.

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Anwar-ul-Haq Bashir
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PREFACE

In the preparation of this Atlas three aims have been kept in view :—

1. To give a connected representation of Indian History. The Maps illustrate periods, and not isolated stages or special events. In other words they represent the road, not merely the milestones upon it.

2. To illustrate the main geographic features that have influenced the course of Indian History.

3. To indicate the extent and importance of India's external relations and emphasise the fact that India has never been an isolated country but " a link in a great chain of countries."

E. W. GREEN.

PRINTED IN EDINBURGH, SCOTLAND, BY
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LIST OF MAPS

THE DAWN OF HISTORY, 6000 - 2500 B.C.



1. THE DAWN OF HISTORY. 6000-2500 B.C.

By the exploration of the sites of ancient cities, relics of men's occupations and activities have been discovered, which enable us to learn something of their history long before written records existed. Such discoveries show that the most ancient centres of civilisation developed in the river-valleys of the Nile, the Euphrates, and the Indus. More recent discoveries make it clear that these three centres were not isolated units but were connected by trade. There is reason, too, for believing that even in this remote age there was trade between these centres and Central Asia. The article in demand was jade, which Central Asia supplied, sending it at first probably by the Indus and South Persian route to Ur, and thence to Egypt, as indicated in the map. Thus, from the dawn of history, India was no isolated country, but was in touch with regions which have influenced the course of her history down to the present age.

The two chief sites in the Indus Basin in which relics of this ancient civilisation have been discovered are Mohenjo Daro and Harappa.

INDIA, 2000 - 800 B.C. THE ARYAN SETTLEMENT



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2. INDIA. 2000-800 B.C.
THE ARYAN SETTLEMENT

THIS map illustrates the coming of the Aryans to India through the Khyber and Malakand Passes and the valleys of the Gomal and Kurram Rivers. The successive stages in conquest and settlement have been shown in colour. Mountain ranges and dense forest extending across Central India checked their advance to the South. With the possible exception of Vidarbha, Aryan civilisation was brought to South India by missionaries and pioneer settlers, as indicated by arrows.

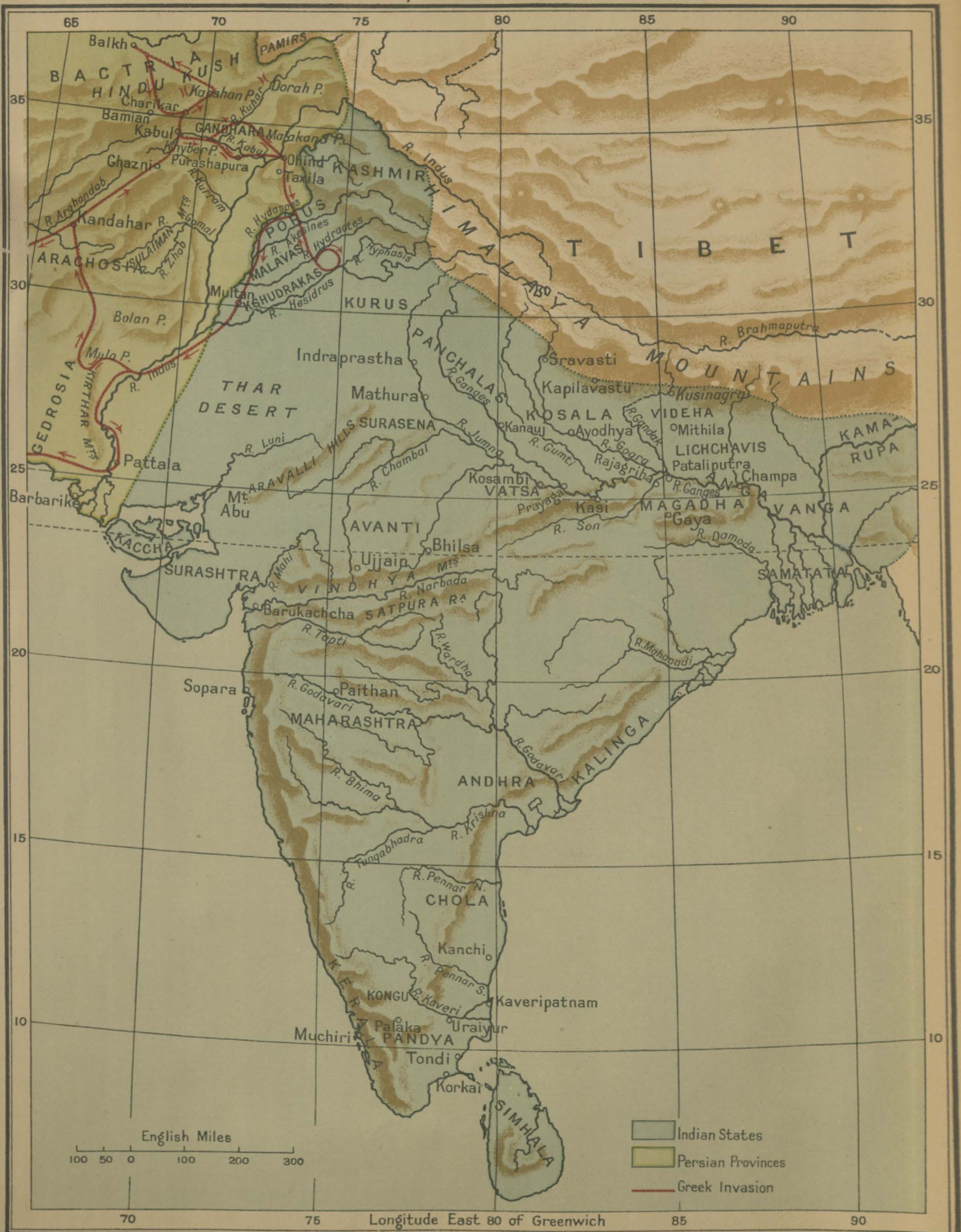
Three important geographical features determined the routes of the invaders and the history of the settlement—

(1) The gateways through the North-Western Mountains.

(2) The corridor between the Himalaya Mountains and the Thar Desert, ending between the Himalayas and the Aravalli Hills in the Delhi Gateway, which gives access to the rich plains of the Ganges-Jumna Basin.

(3) The double barrier of the Vindhya and Satpura Mountains which extend eastwards through the forest and hills of the Kaimur and Maikal Ranges to Chota Nagpur and the Rajmahal Hills. This region of the Central Uplands, though not impassable, forms a natural hindrance to communication between the Northern Plains and the Deccan Plateau.

INDIA, 600-325 B.C.



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3. INDIA. 600-325 B.C.

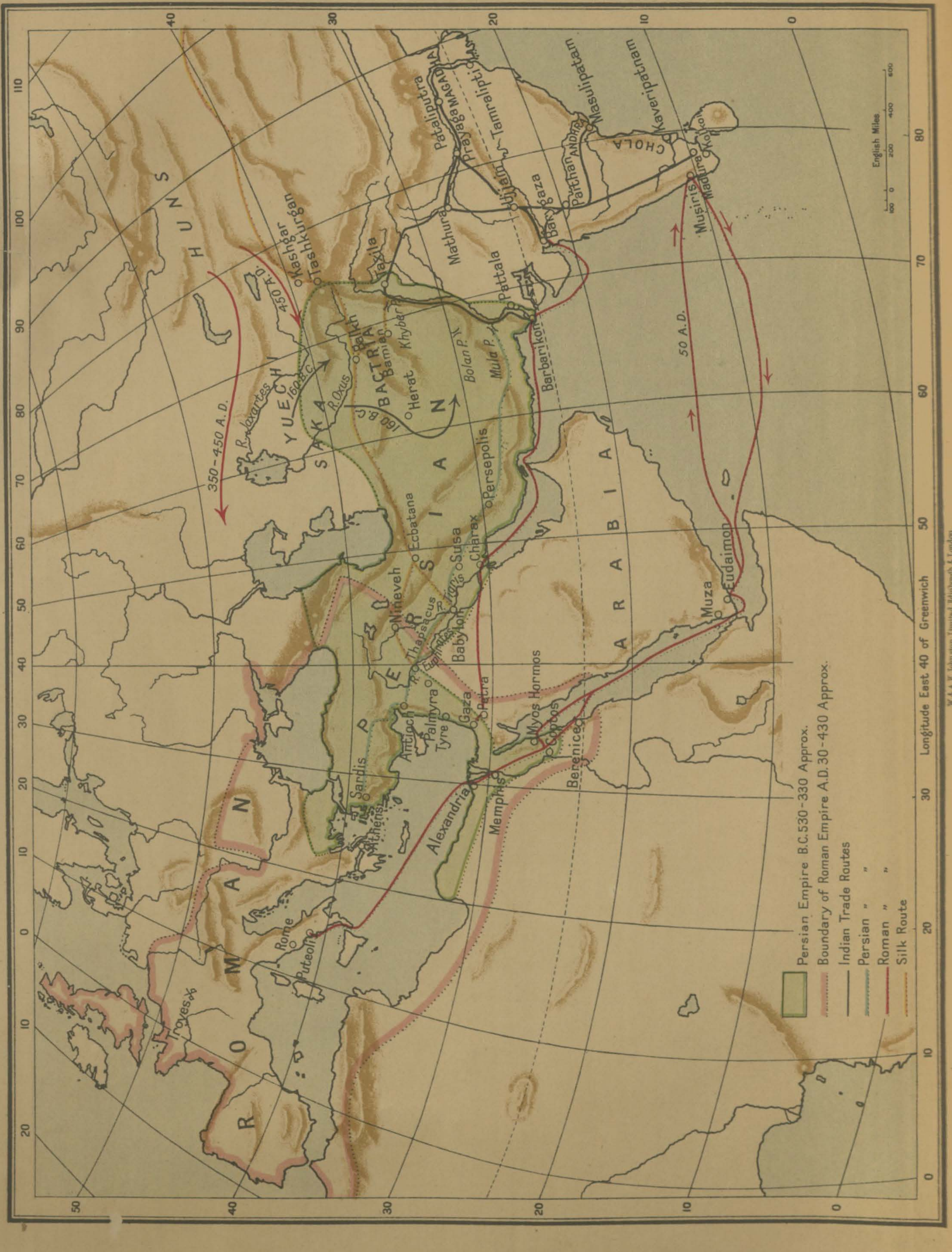
THIS map shows the division of India into a number of kingdoms and republics in the three centuries preceding the establishment of the Mauryan Empire. In this period there was no government strong enough to defend the North-Western Passes against invaders. The country as far as the Indus River was conquered and held by Persia until the Persian Empire was overthrown by Alexander the Great in 330 B.C.

Ancient records give the names of fifteen republics in North India, situated West and North of the Ganges. Historically, the Sakyas of Kapilavastu and the Lichchavis of Vaisali are the most important. The chief kingdoms were Magadha, Anga, Kosala, Vatsa, Avanti, and, in the North-West, Gandhara.

In the Deccan, the country was divided between the Maharashtra tribes in the West and the Andhra and Kalinga kingdoms in the centre and East.

In the South there were three kingdoms. The Chola kingdom in the East, with its capital at Uraiyur ; the Pandya in the South, comprising the modern Madura and Tinnevelly districts ; and the Kerala in the West, which included Malabar, Cochin, and Travancore.

INDIA AND THE WEST, 500 B.C. - 500 A.D.



4. INDIA AND THE WEST. 500 B.C.-500 A.D.

This map illustrates India's relations with the ancient empires of Persia and Rome. India's geographical position brings North India into contact with a power established on the Iranian Plateau. The Deccan and South India are accessible to maritime influence from the opposite coast of Arabia.

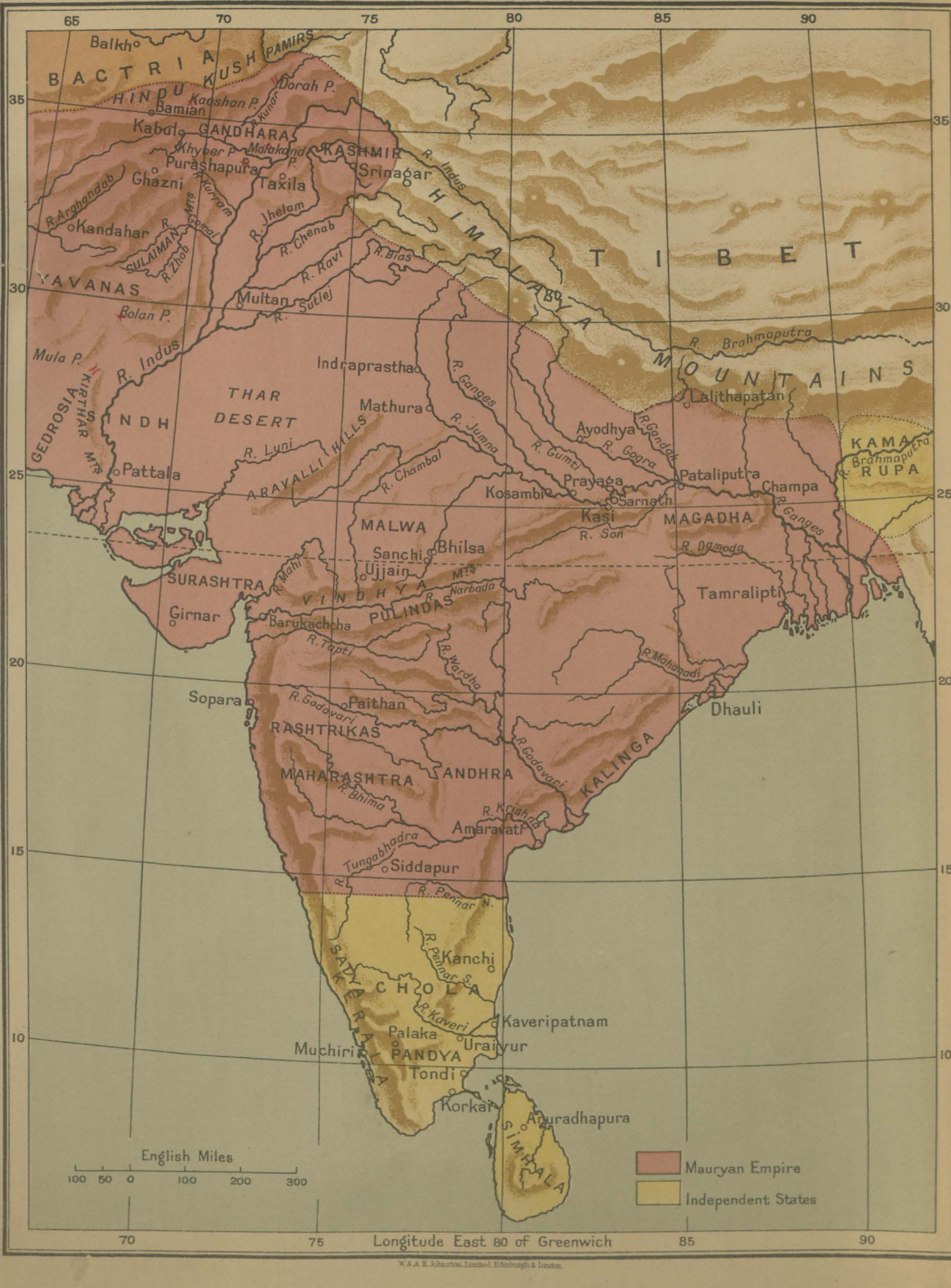
Persia.—In the sixth century B.C. a powerful empire was established on the Iranian Plateau. In the absence of a strong central government in North India, the Persian Emperor, Darius, was able to conquer the Western Panjab and Sindh, and so to control India's commercial intercourse with the West. The Persian Empire was overthrown by the Greeks under Alexander the Great, and on his death it was divided among his generals, the Eastern Provinces falling to Antiochus, the ruler of Syria. The strong Mauryan Dynasty regained the Indus Valley and advanced the Indian Frontier to the Hindu Kush. But on the decline of the Mauryan power, Panjab, Sindh, and Surashtra were occupied for four hundred years by foreign invaders—Bactrian, Scythian, and Kushan.

Note the importance of Bactria, the frontier province between Iran and Turan. It commands the approaches from Central Asia to Persia and India, and on its capital, Balkh, converge the trade-routes from China to India and the West. Almost every invader of India made himself master of Balkh before marching on India.

Rome.—The consolidation of the Roman Empire in the first century A.D. under Augustus and his successors led to a great development of maritime trade with India through the Red Sea and Alexandria. The discovery of the use of the monsoon winds in the reign of the Emperor Claudius (A.D. 50) revolutionised trade, and led to direct intercourse with India. The ports of South India benefited most by the discovery, and became the centres of active intercourse.

In the fourth and fifth centuries A.D. the Huns from Central Asia overran Asia and Europe. Under their leader, Attila, they penetrated westwards beyond the Rhine, until they were checked at the battle of Troyes (451), and exacted tribute from the Roman Empire. One section, known as the White Huns, dominated Persia and occupied India as far East as Malwa (Map 9).

INDIA, 300 - 184 B.C. THE MAURYAN EMPIRE



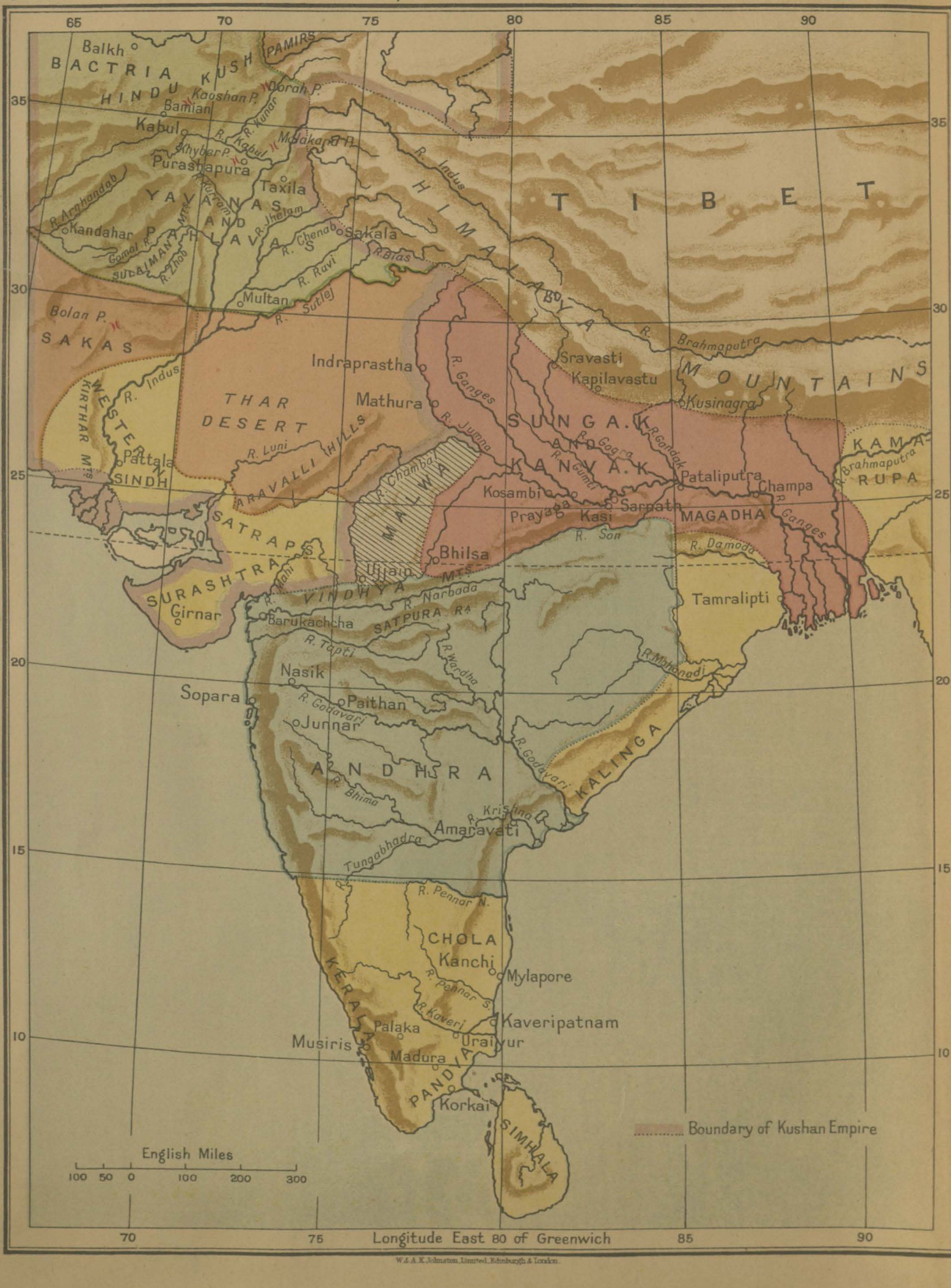
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5. INDIA. 300-184 B.C.
THE MAURYAN EMPIRE

THIS map illustrates the Mauryan Empire at its greatest extent. Under a strong central government the North-Western Frontier was extended to the Hindu Kush. From Taxila the Mauryan Emperors controlled the routes to India from the Iranian Plateau for purposes of commerce and defence.

In the South it is not possible to give the exact boundary of the empire. But, as frequently happened in Indian history, the Mysore Plateau and the rugged country between the rivers Tungabhadra and Pennar (N.) probably marked the limit of northern invasion and left South India undisturbed. The Andhra kingdom was probably a tributary state within the Empire.

INDIA, 184 B.C. - 250 A.D.



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6. INDIA. 184 B.C.-250 A.D.

THIS map represents India in the period following the fall of the Mauryan Empire. In the absence of a strong central government, India was again invaded through the North-Western Passes—(1) Yavanas or Greeks from Bactria—200–140 B.C.; (2) Pallavas and Sakas from Central Asia—140 B.C.–A.D. 40; (3) Yue-chi, whose rulers, Kadphises and Khanishka, established the Kushan Empire extending eastwards to the rivers Jumna and Chambal—40–200 A.D. The dates are approximate.

The strongest power in India in this period was the Andhra Empire, which included most of the Deccan and disputed possession of Malwa with the Sunga kingdom and the Sakas. On many occasions in Indian history a strong power arose in the Deccan and sought to expand to the North, with the object of controlling the trade-routes which converge in Malwa at Ujjain.

INDIA, 300 - 500 A.D. THE GUPTA EMPIRE



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7. INDIA. 300-500 A.D.
THE GUPTA EMPIRE

In the fourth century a powerful empire was again established in North India which secured India from invasion until the sixth century. The southern limit of the Gupta Empire was the Central Uplands. Samudragupta's invasion of South India was probably checked at the river Krishna; no territory south of the Narbadha was annexed.

The Deccan in this period was broken up into a number of small states. In the South the Pallavas established themselves in Kanchi. The southern seaports maintained active intercourse in the East with Java and China, but direct trade with Egypt and Rome in the West declined.

INDIA AND THE EAST, 250 B.C. - 1000 A.D.



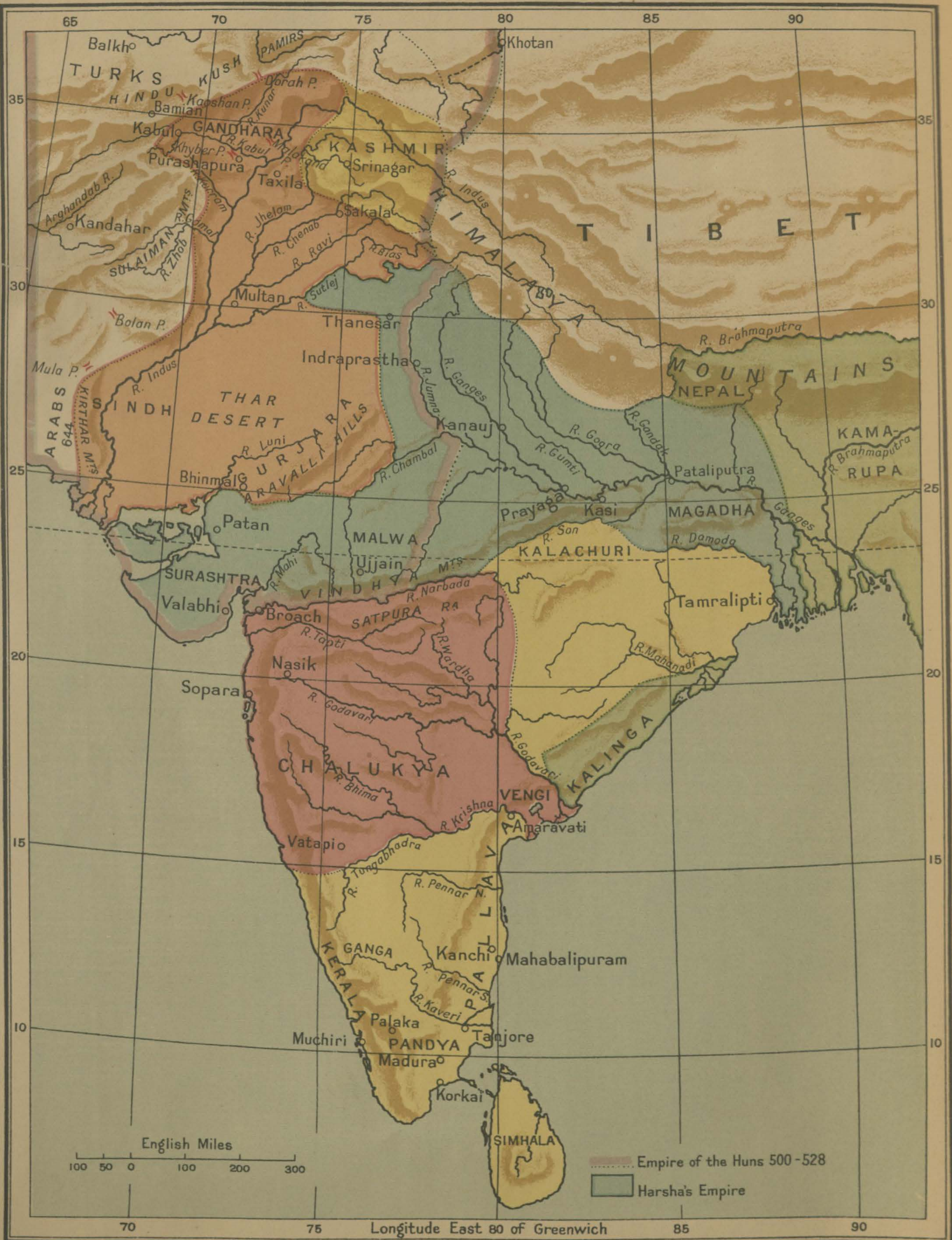
8. INDIA AND THE EAST. 250 B.C.-1000 A.D.

THIS map illustrates the relations of India with the East of Asia. As a result of geographical factors, Indian civilisation spread to the East by sea rather than by land. On her North-Eastern Frontier, mountains and forests have been an effective barrier to intercourse by land, though in the early stages of Indian history bands of Aryans penetrated to Burmah and Siam and founded dynasties there. From the eastern coast of India, however, there is easy access to Burmah and to the sea-route through the Straits of Malacca to China and the countries and islands of South-Eastern Asia. Settlements were made on the coasts of Burmah before the Christian era. In the first century A.D. the Hindu colonisation of Java and Sumatra, Champa and Camboja began. In the seventh century another period of colonisation set in, mainly Buddhist, and possibly from Gujerat as well as from the East coast. After the spread of Islam to the East, the sea-routes were monopolised by the Arabs, and Hindu maritime activity declined.

India also had relations with China by the Silk Route, along which trade flowed from East to West, the Tarim Basin being the main meeting-place for the exchange of commerce and ideas.

One of the most important results of India's relations with the East was the spread of the Buddhist religion. The map shows the extent of its influence.

INDIA, 500 - 650 A.D.



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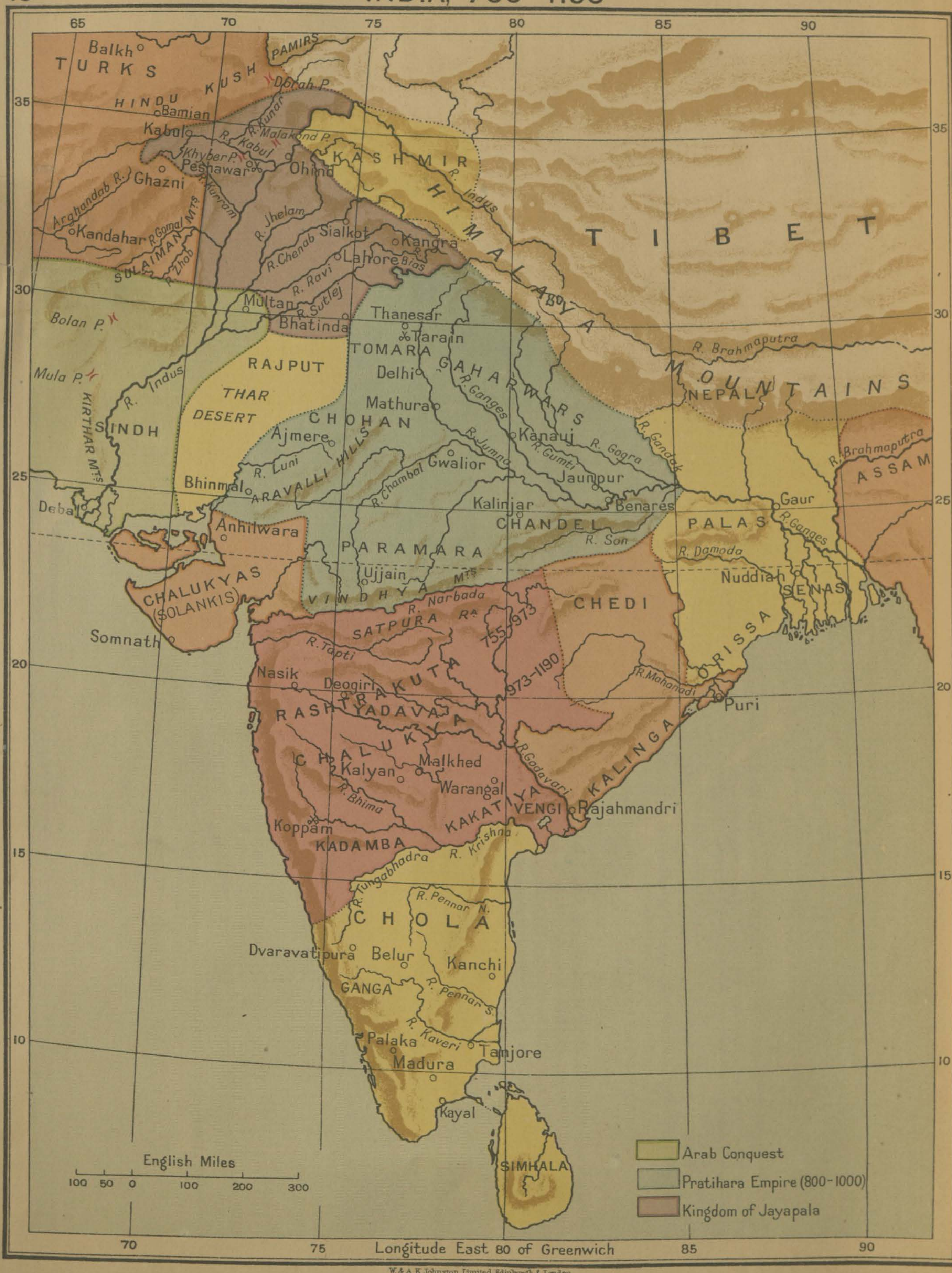
9. INDIA. 500-650 A.D.

THE Gupta Empire was overthrown by the Huns. The Huns had overrun Persia, and descending from the Iranian Plateau established themselves in India under their rulers, Toramana and Mihiragula (500–528). The map illustrates the extent of the Hun Empire in India. In 606, the ruler of Thanesar, who had played an important part in checking the advance of the Huns, again united most of North India under one rule.

In the Deccan, the Chalukyas established supremacy and checked the expansion of Harsha's Empire south of the Central Uplands. Unable to expand northwards, the Chalukyas attempted to extend their power to the South. A long period of warfare with the Pallavas followed, in the course of which the Chalukyas established themselves in the country between the Krishna and Godavari Deltas.

In South India the Pallavas became the paramount power, extending their frontier to the Tungabhadra River to include the Mysore Plateau.

INDIA, 750 - 1150



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10. INDIA. 750-1150

THIS map illustrates the political condition of India in the five hundred years after the collapse of Harsha's Empire. It shows the division of India into a number of states constantly at war with each other.

NORTH INDIA.—In the absence of a strong central government foreign invaders, Gurjaras, who had followed the Huns into India, advanced and founded a number of dynasties (Rajput), the Pratiharas establishing a powerful kingdom which, at the height of its power, comprised the territory coloured blue. At the same time the frontier was again threatened by the advance of the Arab armies (Map 11), and the establishment of a Muslim Empire on the Iranian Plateau. In the eighth century, Sindh was conquered by the Arabs. Turks succeeded the Arabs, and their invasions of India began in the tenth century, when the Indian frontier kingdom was annexed by Mahmud of Ghazni.

DECCAN.—Two dynasties in turn obtained supremacy in the Deccan in this period—Rashtrakutas and Chalukyas. Each attempted with varying success to extend its power northwards into Malwa and southwards beyond the Tungabhadra, but no permanent conquests were made.

SOUTH INDIA.—The Pallava power collapsed, and the Cholas regained supremacy in the middle of the ninth century, securing their frontier on the Mysore Plateau and engaging in maritime activity in the Bay of Bengal and the Eastern Seas.

INDIA AND THE WEST 600 - 1200 A.D.

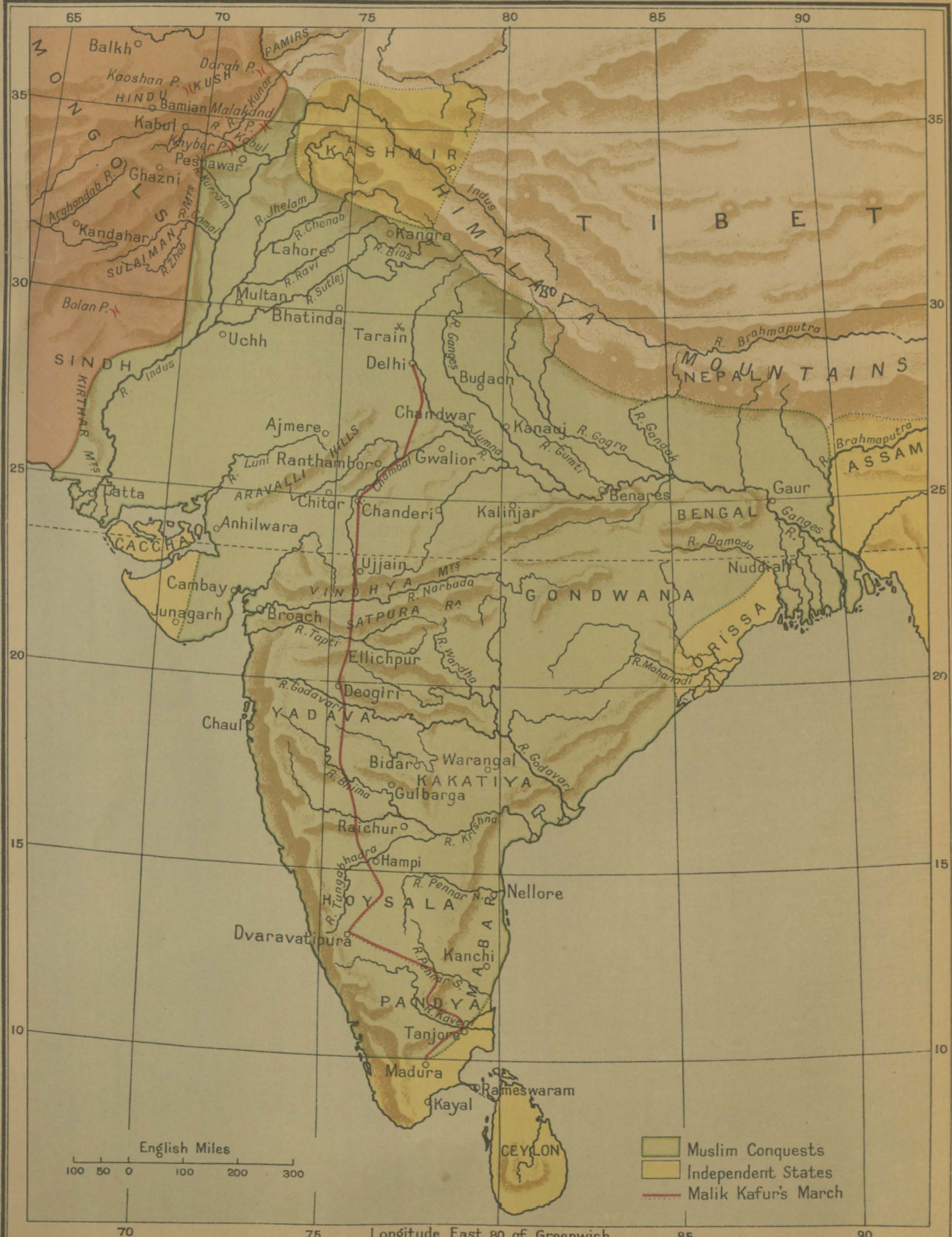


11. INDIA AND THE WEST. 600-1200 A.D.

In the seventh century, India was brought into contact with a new force which profoundly influenced her history—the religion of Islam. Arab armies carried the religion eastwards to the Iranian Plateau, destroying the Persian Empire at the battle of Kadesiyeh (636), and westwards to North Africa and Spain, until they were checked at the battle of Tours (732). After a period of unity, Islam was divided under two Caliphs at Baghdad and Cordova. Between India and the Eastern, or Abbassid Caliphate, there was active intercourse, and many Arab settlements were established on the West coast of India, especially in Malabar. In the eighth century, Sindh was conquered by Arabs, but, with this exception, Arab armies did not invade India.

The Muslim conquerors of India were Turks from Central Asia. In the eleventh century, Turks dominated the Abbassid Caliphate, conquered Asia Minor and Syria (The Crusades), and established principalities on the Indian Frontier in Ghazni and Ghur. The Turks were displaced by the Mongols, who pressed westwards to Central Europe, overthrew the Abbassid Caliphate (1258), and invaded India (compare Map 4). The limits of Mongol conquests have been shown in the map. Another section of Turks followed the Mongols and established the Ottoman Empire in Asia Minor. Their capture of Constantinople in 1453 marked another revolution in the relations of India with the West.

INDIA, 1180 - 1340 THE MUSLIM CONQUEST



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12. INDIA. 1180-1340.
THE MUSLIM CONQUEST

THIS map illustrates the extent of the Muslim Conquest in India. There were two main periods of conquest :

(1) 1180–1206. NORTH INDIA—MUHAMMAD GHORI.

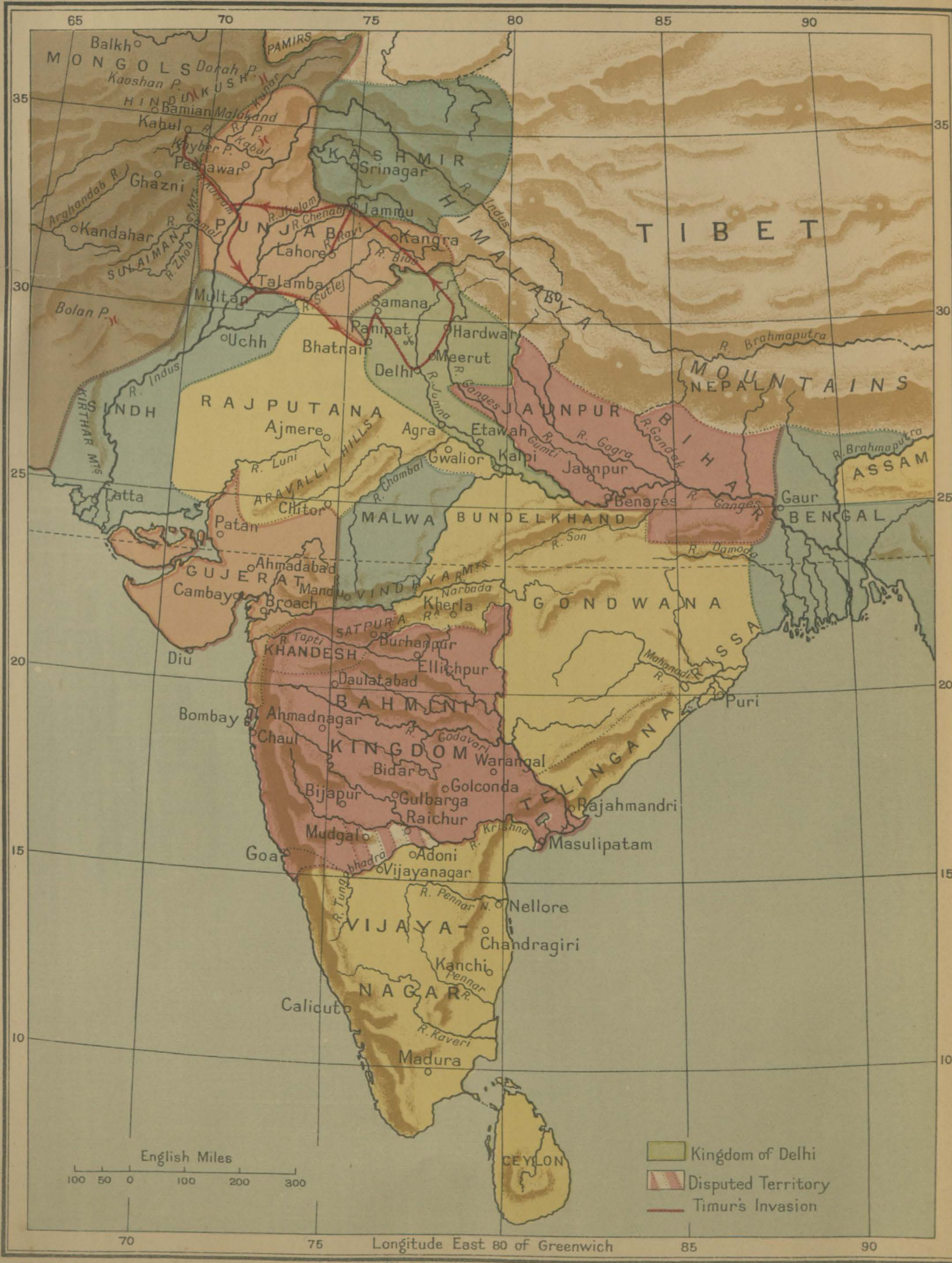
Both in the earlier Muslim raids and in 1191 and 1192, leagues of Indian states opposed the Muslim armies in the Delhi Gap at Tarain. Their defeat opened the Ganges-Jumna Basin to the invader (compare Map 2).

(2) 1296–1316. DECCAN AND SOUTH INDIA.

The Deccan was no longer under one rule, and there was no serious opposition to the Muslim advance. The most important states were the Yadava and the Kakatiya.

South India, after the collapse of the Chola power at the end of twelfth century, was divided between the Hoysala kingdom, occupying the Mysore plateau, and the Pandyan occupying the country south of the Kaveri River, and the coastal plain to the Pennar (N.). Neither state could withstand the invaders. The Hoysala power was destroyed and the Pandyan kingdom was reduced to its former limits. The coastal plain was formed into a province of the Muslim Empire—Mabar.

INDIA, 1340-1500 DECLINE OF THE MUSLIM EMPIRE



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13. INDIA. 1340-1500.
DECLINE OF THE MUSLIM EMPIRE

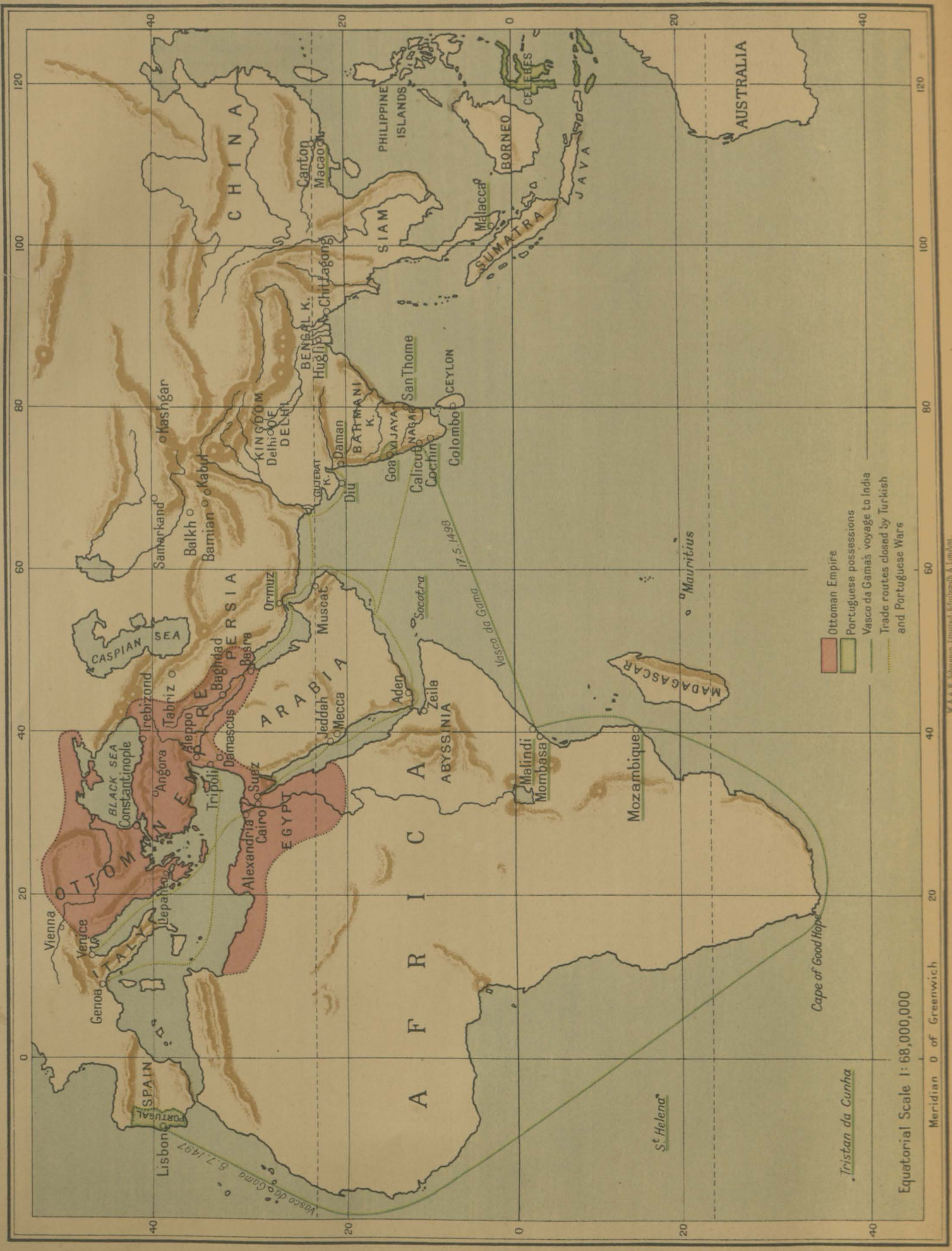
In 1340 the central authority at Delhi weakened, and the Muslim Empire began to break up into a number of independent states. The decline became rapid after 1388, and was completed by the Mongol invasion in 1398. After Timur's invasion, the kingdom of Delhi was limited to a varying area in the neighbourhood of Delhi, but it was never larger than the extent indicated in the map. For a short period the Lodi kings united North India from the Panjab to Bihar, but their authority was never firmly established.

Deccan.—The country between the Central Uplands and the Mysore Plateau was again formed into an independent state under the Bahmani kings. Though they attempted to extend north of the Vindhya Mountains into Malwa and Gujerat, they were not successful, their southern frontier occupying most of their resources and attention.

Khandesh became an independent state in 1382.

South India.—The country from the Tungabhadra to Cape Comorin was brought under one rule to form the Empire of Vijayanagar. There were constant wars with the Bahmani kingdom for the possession of the Raichur Doab.

INDIA AND THE WEST, 1450 - 1600



14. INDIA AND THE WEST. 1450-1600.

THIS map illustrates the change in India's relations with the West, resulting from the discovery of the sea-route to India by Portugal.

The Western trade routes, coloured yellow, show the chief routes by which Indian trade reached Europe after the overthrow of the Huns in the fourteenth century. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 closed the northern route, but trade still followed the overland route to the ports of Syria and the sea-route to Alexandria, until the Turks conquered Syria and Egypt (1517), and the Portuguese diverted trade from the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea to the ocean route round the Cape of Good Hope.

The coasts of the Deccan and South India from their maritime location were brought at first into more direct relation with the new Western influence than the North of India (compare Maps 4 and 11). The West coast became the centre of Portuguese activity in India in the sixteenth century. In the next century English, French, and Dutch established trading settlements on the East coast.

INDIA, 1500 - 1700 THE MOGUL EMPIRE



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15. INDIA. 1500-1700.
THE MOGUL EMPIRE

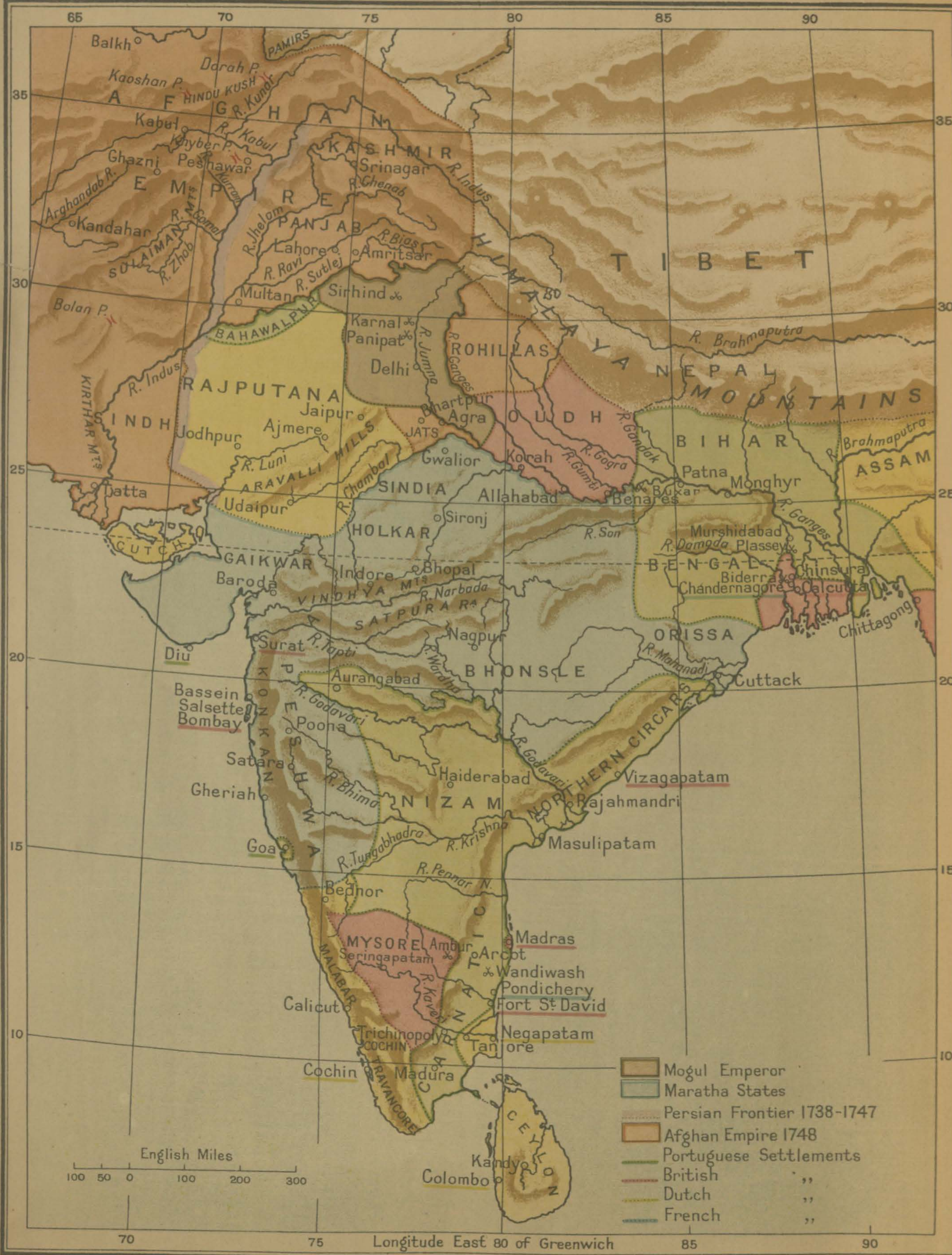
A STRONG central government was again established in India by the Mogul Emperors. Map 15 illustrates the Mogul Empire at its greatest extent. The Hindu Kush was for a time again the frontier of the Empire (compare Map 5).

The Mogul advance—(1) Baber 1526, (2) Akbar 1556—followed the line of previous invasions. The Panjab was first occupied, victories at Panipat in 1526 and 1556 in the Delhi Gap gave access to the Ganges-Jumna Basin. Invasion of the Deccan followed. Khandesh, Berar, and Gondwana formed part of Akbar's Empire. Under his successors, territory as far south as Mysore and the Kaveri were added.

DECCAN.—In 1526 the Bahmani kingdom had broken up into separate kingdoms. Though constantly at war with one another, they united to destroy the Empire of Vijayanagar in 1565, at Talikota. The Mysore Plateau was annexed to Bijapur, and Golconda advanced to the Pennar (N.). In the West the Maratha power was developing.

SOUTH INDIA.—After the overthrow of the Empire of Vijayanagar, South India was divided among a number of independent Rajahs and Polygars. Descendants of the Vijayanagar Dynasty continued to rule at Chandragiri.

INDIA, 1700-1765 DECLINE OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE



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16. INDIA. 1700-1765.
DECLINE OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE

THIS map illustrates the political condition of India on the break-up of the Mogul Empire after the death of Aurangzeb. India was again divided into a number of independent states (compare Map 13), and was exposed to invasions from the North-West Passes—(1) 1737, Nadir Shah, who had brought the Iranian Plateau under Persian rule. (2) 1748, Amir Shah, the founder of the Afghan Empire. In both cases the invaders advanced by the Khyber-Peshawar-Lahore route, and occupied Delhi after winning victories at Karnal and Panipat, in the Delhi Gap. The map illustrates the territory annexed by the invaders. From 1738–1748 the Indus again became the Persian Frontier (compare Map 3), and Sindh and the Panjab were provinces of the Afghan Empire till 1820.

DECCAN.—The Deccan was divided between two rival powers—the Marathas and the Nizam. Note the expansion of the Marathas north of the Vindhya Mountains into Malwa and Gujerat. Their attempt at supremacy in North India was checked at Panipat in 1761.

SOUTH INDIA.—In the South, too, there was division and rivalry. The Carnatic (Arcot) and Mysore were the chief states, but the Marathas and the Nizam from the Deccan, and the French and English East India Companies on the coast, had political and commercial interests in the Carnatic.

INDIA, 1765-1795 THE MARATHA POWER



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17. INDIA. 1765-1795.
THE MARATHA POWER

THIS map illustrates the attempt of the Maratha power to establish its supremacy in India after its defeat at Panipat in 1761. In the Deccan it had expanded at the expense of the Nizam. In North India it had obtained control of Delhi and Eastern Rajputana, but its expansion into the Ganges-Jumna Basin was opposed by the English East India Company in Bengal.

IN THE NORTH the Afghan Empire still extended nominally to the Jumna, but its hold upon the country east of the Jhelum was uncertain. The Sikhs, organised into misls but not yet into a state, raided and plundered at will.

SOUTH INDIA.—Mysore had developed into a powerful state, with its northern frontier on the Tungabhadra-Krishna line. Its rulers, Hyder Ali and Tippoo, attempted to add the coastal plain and Travancore, and so to bring South India under one rule. Their design was checked by the East India Company, who had become supreme in the Carnatic. The results of the wars between Mysore and the Company are shown in Map 18.

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INDIA, 1795 - 1835 BRITISH EXPANSION



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18. INDIA. 1795-1835.
BRITISH EXPANSION

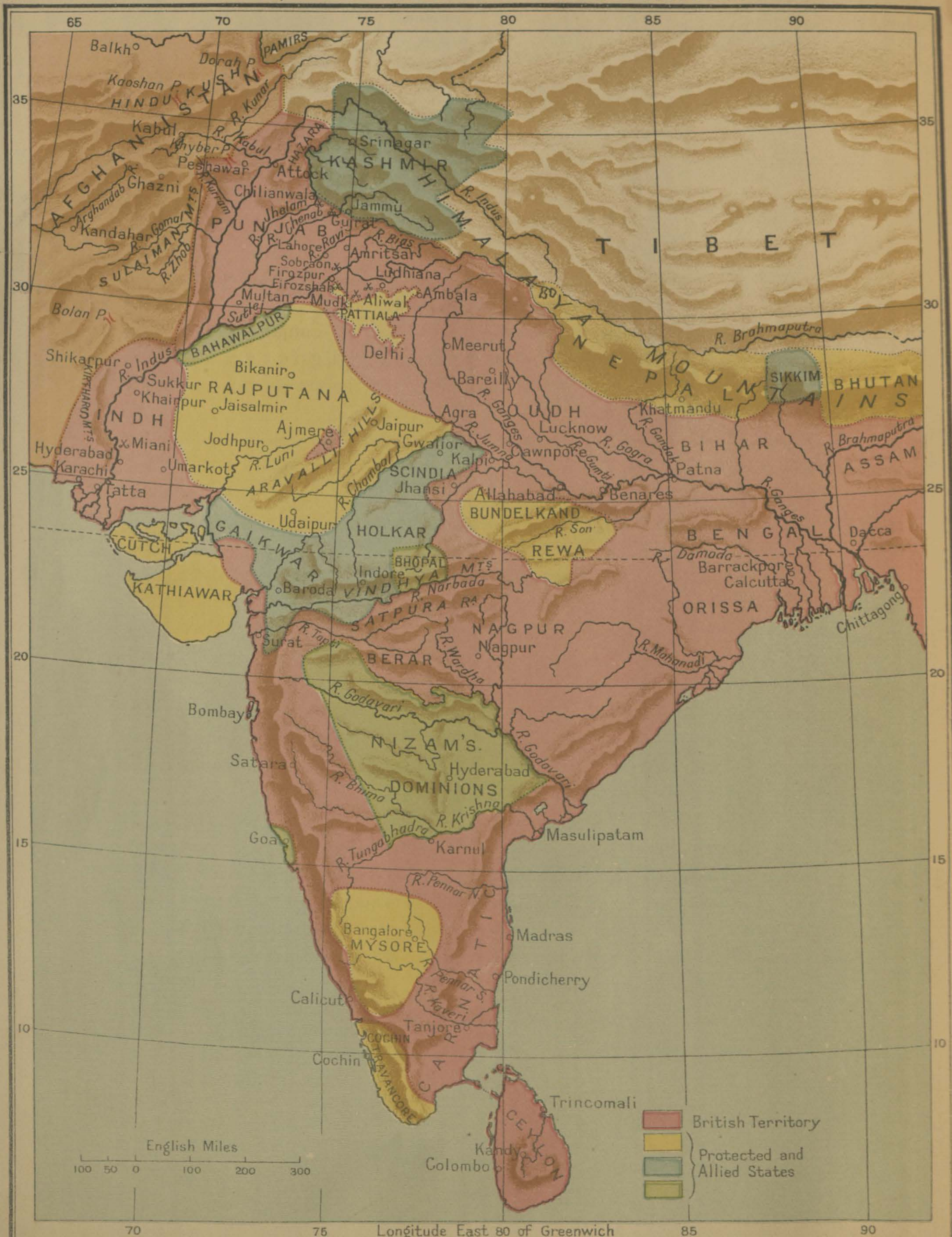
The most important geographical factor in the political history of India up to the middle of the eighteenth century was its accessibility through the North-Western Passes. From the middle of the eighteenth century the accessibility of India through her seaports has been the dominating factor. The navigable rivers of the Ganges and the Indus made North India more accessible to a maritime power than the Deccan and South India (before the construction of railways), which have no navigable rivers. Thus, although the rivalry between the French and English, based on the sea, was decided in the Carnatic, the decisive event in the history of British expansion in India was the battle of Plassey (1757), because it gave the East India Company command of the resources of Bengal and the entrance to the Ganges-Jumna Basin from the East.

North India.—The Maratha war (1803–1805) left the East India Company the dominant power in North India, with its frontier on the Sutlej, Lake's victory near Delhi (1803), giving it command of the Delhi Gap. Beyond the Sutlej, the Sikh state extended to the North-Western Passes, and included Kashmir.

Deccan.—The Maratha wars left the East India Company supreme in the Deccan. The acquisition of the Peshwa's territories secured control of the sea approaches through Bombay and the Gulf of Cambay, and of the land-passes of the Western Ghats and Central Uplands.

South India.—After the wars with Mysore, the East India Company became the dominant power in South India. The annexation of Malabar and Canara gave control of the Western approaches by sea and land to the Mysore Plateau; the annexation of Coimbatore and Baramahal, with the acquisition of the Carnatic, secured control of the Southern and Eastern approaches. In the North the frontier of the Tungabhadra and Krishna was established.

INDIA, 1835 - 1858 BRITISH SUPREMACY



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19. INDIA. 1835-1858.
BRITISH SUPREMACY

This map illustrates the political condition of India when the country had been united again under a central authority.

North India.—The conquest of Sindh (1843) and the Panjab (1849) brought British territory to the North-Western Mountains, and gave them control of the exits of the Passes from the Iranian Plateau and the sea approach from the estuary of the Indus.

The annexation of Oudh (1856) brought all the Ganges-Jumna Basin under British rule.

Deccan.—Berar and Nagpur were brought under British administration in 1853.

THE INDIAN EMPIRE, 1858-1930



20. THE INDIAN EMPIRE. 1858-1930

This map illustrates the political organisation of India into Presidencies, Provinces, and States after the government had been transferred from the East India Company to the Crown.

The map also illustrates the relations of India with the two frontier states that had developed in the eighteenth century—Afghanistan and Burma.

Relations with Afghanistan were influenced by the advance of Russia into Central Asia to the river Oxus and the Caspian Sea.

The possibility of the establishment of Russian power and influence on the Iranian Plateau caused attempts to be made to get control of Kabul and to extend British influence to the Hindu Kush (compare Maps 5 and 15).

On the North-Eastern Frontier the Burmese conquest of Manipur and Assam led to wars which resulted in the annexation of Burma.

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